

**PERCEIVED PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF STIGMATIZATION ON RECIDIVIST  
PRISONERS IN KEFFI PRISON**

**BY**

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**AUGUST, 2018**

**DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this dissertation “perceived psychological impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in Keffi prison” has been written by me and is a report of my research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a Masters Degree. All quotations are indicated and sources of information specifically acknowledged by means of references.

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### CERTIFICATION

The dissertation “perceived psychological impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in Keffi prison” meets the regulations governing the award of Masters Degree of the school of post graduate studies, Nasarawa state university, Keffi, Keffi, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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## **DEDICATION**

This research is dedicated to God Almighty for his wisdom, strength and knowledge He has given me to carry out this research.

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## ABSTRACT

*The study investigated perceived psychological impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in keffi prison. Fifty (50) participants were recruited for this study, thirty nine (39) males and eleven (11) females' recidivist prisoners with an age range of (18-45 years) were randomly selected for the study. The researcher tested three hypotheses. The first hypothesis was confirmed as statistically significant; male recidivist prisoners ( $M=24.97$ ;  $SD=2.44$ ) and female recidivist prisoners ( $M=28.64$ ;  $SD=4.55$ ) condition  $t(48) = -3.569$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , significant. Female recidivists perceived stigmatization most than the male recidivist prisoners. The second hypothesis was also confirmed as statistically significant using one-way ANOVA;  $F(2,47)=7.872$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ; this implies that age of the recidivist prisoners significantly influenced their perception on stigmatization. Furthermore, the third hypothesis tested using t-Test was rejected and not statistically significant. Educated recidivists ( $M=25.83$ ;  $SD =4.04$ ) and uneducated recidivist prisoners ( $M=23.88$ ,  $SD=.4.39$ );  $t(48) =1.24$ ,  $P > 0.05$ . This implies that the level of education of the recidivist has not influenced their perception about stigmatization. The researcher recommends that educating society and public opinion is necessary to create awareness and break barriers among recidivist prisoners.*

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background to the Study**

In the traditional pre-colonial African societies, offenders were seen as enemies of the gods of the land whose offences attracted the wrath of the gods on the whole society (Igbo, 2007). Therefore, evildoers or violators of the laws of the land were perceived and treated as outcasts, evil and wicked their punishment ranged from public humiliation, flogging, temporal excommunication, payment of fine, to performance of sacrifices to appease the gods and cleanse themselves of the offences committed before they could be reintegrated into the society (Igbo, 2007).

Convicts in general are assumed to be tough, mean, sneaky, dangerous, aggressive, and untrustworthy (Falk, 2001) and are labeled as such. But black and brown inmates are also considered shameless. The notion that going to prison has become a rite of passage for poor young black and brown males fuels the concern that the criminal justice system is not sufficiently humiliating for minority men and that the imposition of stiffer emotional or analyzed with care. Being excluded from the law-abiding population and ensconced in a criminal subculture that judges their behavior more leniently may protect offenders from the full impact of the censure of the law-abiding population while they are incarcerated. For poor and minority offenders, collectively coming to understand both the structural obstacles (poverty, poor education, poor housing, poor health care) that played a role in promoting their criminal behavior, and the inadequacies of the criminal justice system (primarily its racial bias) that resulted in their incarceration allows them to view their crimes and status vis-a-vis the broader

perspective of society. (Brahman, 2004) Rather than shame, some imprisoned minorities may experience anger and indignation as a result of "reframing" their punishment in less stigmatizing terms. None of this means that minority inmates are without shame. It just may be that whatever shame they experience is a result of their failure to conform to the values of the subgroup of the society from which they come. Such a result would be consistent with the notion that the institutions of the larger American society are unfair and unjust, and accordingly cannot be counted on to treat minorities in a way that capitulate to shaming that is wholly incompatible with their sense of psychological well-being as blacks and Latinos in America. Stigma, thus, is a source of conflict between penal institutions and the minority inmates they house, with the prize being the emotional psyche of the incarcerated.

The stigma on family members of criminal offenders has several sources. Crime by a family member is taken as evidence of bad parenting and familial socialization. In addition, incarcerated parents are considered to be social failures, and this pejorative characterization is exacerbated by underlying assumptions about race and socioeconomic status.(NCFE, 2001) For example, loss of a significant family member-especially a male breadwinner- may result in a family's becoming the stereotypical black, fractured, female-headed family. In truth, the very problems that incarceration exacerbates-from diminished income to undesired single parenting-are deeply embedded in stereotypes of black families in America. (Brahman, 2004) Thus, mass incarceration reinforces the stereotypes about black families.

Getting arrested, convicted, and sent to prison has the effect of putting one's business in the street. A community does not have to be tightly knit for the information to get around; being tightly packed or densely populated (as many urban neighborhoods are) will do. Stigma depends on the sentiments of the community that the stigmatized consider sacred, not necessarily the

opinions of the public in general. If the circle in which an ex-offender lives, travels, and wants to be respected, albeit small, is aware of her or his political disability that may suffice to provoke the shame of stigma.

Once minority offenders are released from incarceration, the misinterpretation of crime statistics relating to recidivism and to the general propensity of minorities to commit crime ready dissemination of criminal records by the state, and the media representations of minority criminals as virtually natural born make the stigma nearly impossible to overcome once it has attached. (Garland, 2001).

Under the stigma theory of felon disenfranchisement, ex- offenders are denied the right to vote because they are morally incompetent, unredeemable, and likely to recidivate. (Johnson-Paris, 2003). It might be argued, however, that stigma is not a strong justification for disenfranchisement of ex-offenders because the disability can be hidden.

The major mandates of the Nigerian Prisons Service is the safe custody of the legally interned; apart from that, it is to ensure that the legally interned are reformed, rehabilitated and effectively reintegrated back to the society. The major failure of the Nigerian prison system is the poor reintegration of released inmates into the society. The Nigerian Prisons Service, being the department of the federal government responsible for the management of prisons in Nigeria, has failed in this regard. This is as a result of the neglect of the punitive system, poor funding, lack of professionals in various segments of the prison, and numerous other problems bugging down the prison system in Nigeria. These problems have translated to poor rehabilitation, reformation and resettlement of the legally interned. As a result, ex-prisoners keep finding their ways to prison again and again.

According to Ahmed and Ahmad (2015), the re-integration of the released inmates into

the society from the prison is a challenge to almost all societies globally and breeds the phenomenon of recidivism. This is because the rate of recidivism of a particular jurisdiction can be used to measure the effectiveness of the prison's rehabilitation model. There has been ambiguity in the definition and measurement of recidivism. Recidivism can simply be defined as reoffending. In broad terms, it is defined as reengaging in criminal behavior after been punished or rehabilitated for a previous crime (Elderbroon & King, 2014). According to Payne (2007) recidivism refers to repetitious criminal activity and is synonymous with terms such as repeat offending and re-offending. It is normally determined as a rate or percentage of prisoners released in a particular jurisdiction in a particular year who meet certain criteria like getting a new conviction in a defined amount of time (Ruggero, Dougherty & Klofas, 2015). Recidivism can be measured in diverse ways as there is no specific measure of it. These methods of measuring recidivism have different criteria for labeling a person as a recidivist. The widely used measure of labelling one a recidivist is if the person returns to prison within a given span of time usually, two or three years (Ruggero et al., 2015). Reconviction,imprisonment,arraignment are other measures of labeling a person a recidivist. Reconviction can be defined as a situation where a court determines the individual has committed a new crime, with or without imprisonment (Ruggero et al., 2015). Re-incarceration can be defined as an arrest that resulted in the person been sent to prison or jail. Imprisonment is defined as an arrest resulting in a prison sentence (Cooper, Durose, & Snyder, 2014). Re-arrest recidivism is only used when there is no conviction disposition information available, as an arrest does not yet mean that a person has been found guilty of a new crime or violation. Finally, re-arraignment is defined as any court appearances within the criminal court system (LoBuglio & Lyman, 2006).

Although there have been a lot of researches on the causes of recidivism among Nigerian

subjects, much has not been done on the lapses in the Nigerian prisons structure, and how they lead to recidivism. The problems and inefficiency in the Nigerian prison system is a major culprit in the high rate of recidivism in Nigeria. Hence, this study intends to investigate the shortcomings in the Nigerian prison circle that contributes to the high rate of reoffending in Nigeria. Furthermore, there is shortage of information on recidivism, even with its observed skyrocketing rate. The dearth of information on this impending problem has not helped in exposing it to the public, thus making the Nigerian society sit on a keg of gunpowder which may explode at anytime.

A panoply of economic, social, and political post-conviction penalties, including the denial of the right to vote, is intended to assure that the shame of incarceration is not forgotten or avoided. Post-conviction penalties that limit an ex-offender's ability to obtain a job, (Austin, 2000) to qualify for publicly-subsidized housing,(Austin, 2002) or to otherwise fully participate in economic life may be shameful and humiliating- in part because they remind the ex-offender of his or her prior moral transgressions. They also interfere with the ex-offender's obligations as a parent, for example, or impede her or his ability to possess the indicia of an autonomous adult and thereby frustrate the efforts of the ex-offender to escape or transcend her or his status as a moral defective. According to one investigator, the inability of released prisoners "to earn a decent living and support a family was far more shameful than their criminality. So, the stigma of criminality leads to the shame of being unable to support one's family.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Being labeled as a stigmatized person has substantial effects on the way people think and feel about themselves, as well as how they expect to be treated by others in their environment

(Link et al. 1989; Crocker, Major, and Steele 1998). Psychological research shows that such responses to stigma can interfere with functioning, and lead to maladaptive behaviors, poor mental health, and difficulty participating in the community (Inzlicht, Tullett, and Gutsell 2011). Empirical studies consistently show these relationships in *non-correctional* groups (Livingston and Boyd 2010), but little research has been conducted with offenders. Criminal offenders are a highly stigmatized group, marginalized via temporary and sometimes permanent restrictions on voting rights, housing, financial aid, employment, and other aspects of community involvement (Pogorzelski et al. 2005). The structural barriers affecting criminal offenders' integration in the community have been described in depth elsewhere (see Winnick and Bodkin 2008; Morani et al. 2011). Offenders' psychological responses to stigma may be important in understanding their reintegration in the community after release from jail or prison.

In Nigeria, researchers has alluded to the fact that there is an increase in the rate of recidivism and that male offenders have greater propensity to reoffend (Igbo and Ugwuoke 2003; Soyombo 2009; Ugwuoke 2010; Abrifor et al. 2012: 42; Tennibiaje 2013; Osayi 2013). Factors that could lead to an increase in the rate of recidivism among male ex-prisoners have been identified. Igbo and Ugokwe (2003) listed prison environment conditions and negative attitude of the public towards ex-convicts as two major factors responsible for increase in recidivism. Ugwuoke (2010) submitted that stigmatisation, defective prison system which promotes the dissemination and exchange of criminal influences and ideas are the causes of increase in recidivism in Anambra State, South East, Nigeria. Chenube (2011) identified alcohol and substance abuse as being directly linked to crime and recidivism.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

- (a). Is there a difference between male and female recidivist prisoners in the perceived impact of stigmatization?
- (b). Is there any significant difference on the age difference of the recidivist prisoners on the perceived impacts of stigmatization?
- (c). Would the educational levels of the recidivist prisoners affect their perception on stigmatization?
- (d). Would the age level of the recidivist prisoners influence their perception on stigmatization?

### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

1. To measure the perception of recidivist prisoners on stigmatization.
2. To assess if gender has an influence on the perceived impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in Keffi, Nigeria.
3. To test if educational status has an influence on the perceived impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in Keffi, Nigeria.
4. To test if the age of the recidivist prisoners influence their perception on stigmatization.

### **1.5 Statement of the Hypotheses**

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant difference between male and female recidivist prisoners on how they perceive stigmatization.

Hypothesis 2: Age difference will significantly influence the perception of recidivist prisoners on stigmatization.

Hypothesis 3: There will be significant difference on the level of education of recidivist prisoners on their perception of stigmatization

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The findings of this research will add to the existing knowledge about the impact of stigmatization on recidivism in Nigeria. It will also bring about an understanding on the unique characteristics of recidivists to the fore.

This work serves as an essential resource for psychologists, sociologists and other behavioral scientists who are interested in recidivism and offender/reoffended issues.

The results of this study can be used by all arms of the criminal justice system in Nigeria to help in prisoner rehabilitation.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

The study which is on the perceived psychological impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners in Keffi Prison, was conducted in Medium Security Prison, Keffi local government area of Nasarawa state. Keffi medium security prison was selected due to the numerous population of inmates, and can satisfactorily represents the sample of the total population of recidivist prisoners in Nigeria.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Conceptual Frame Work

##### 2.1.1 Stigmatization

Stigmatization is an attribute, behavior or reputation which is socially discrediting in a particular way, it causes an individual to be mentally classified by others in an undesirable, rejected stereotype rather than in an unaccepted, normal one. Goffman, a noted sociologist, defined stigma as a social kind of gap between virtual social identity and actual social identity. Society establishes the means of categorizing persons and the complement of attributes felt to be ordinary and natural for members of each of these categories. When a stranger comes into our presence, then first appearance are likely to enable us to anticipate his category and attributes, his “social identity” ....we learn that we have, transforming them into normative expectations into righteously presented demands. .... It is (when an active question arises as to whether these demands will be filled) that we are likely to realized that all along we had been making certain assumptions as to what the individual before us ought to be. (these assumed demands and the character we impute to the individual will be called) virtual society identity. (Goffman, 1963).

Stigmas comprise two fundamental components, namely the recognition of difference and devaluation, (Dovidio, Major, & Crocker, 2000). They also emphasize that stigma occurs in social interactions. As such, stigma is not considered to reside in the person but rather in the social context (Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998; Hebel & Dovidio, 2005). What is stigmatizing in one social context may not be stigmatizing in another situation (Crocker, Major & Steele, 1998). In one of the few studies assessing perceived stigma with offenders, Winnick and Bodkin (2008) examined how 450 male offenders thought people in society will react to the label of “ex-com”

offenders perceived a great deal of stigma and reported perceiving the most stigma on items in the domains of employment and childcare. Offenders perceived stigma was also related to anticipating the use of negative coping styles.

Stigmatization can be overt (Herek, 1999). It can manifest as aversion to interaction, avoidance, social rejection, discounting, discrediting and depersonalization of other into stereotypic caricatures (Dovidio et al, 2000, Herek, 1999).

From the above works of other scholars on stigmatization, it can be seen that the major factors that contributed to the causes of recidivism in our contemporary society is based on the label “that one is an ex-convict”. The researcher believes that the stigmas the ex-convict or parole offers are possible factors towards recidivism.

### **2.1.2 Stigma**

The concept of stigma is important to understand when defining the labeling theory. Stigma, which originally came from Goffman (1963), explains that society have attached a certain negative stereotyping to the deviant label. This stereotyping comes from different directions such as films, books and daily conversations. People learn from a young age how the bad guy looks and acts (Bernburg, 2009). Goffman argued: While the stranger is present before us, evidence can arise of his possessing an attribute that makes him different from others. He is thus reduced in our minds from a whole and usual person to a tainted, discounted one. Such an attribute is a stigma (Goffman, 1963). In other words, the stigmatized individual becomes less worthy in the eyes of others. His self-perception changes because he comes across negative images of himself through others (Bernburg, 2005). As a result, the labeled individual could find it difficult to hold on to social bonds (Bernburg, 2009). Being labeled and stigmatized results in

changes in the individual's self, it reduces integration to a traditional social structure and enhances the relationship with other labeled individuals (Bernburg, 2005).

### **2.1.3 Recidivism**

Recidivism is one of the most fundamental concepts in criminal justice. It refers to a person's relapse into criminal behaviour, often after the person receives sanctions or undergoes interventions for a previous crime (Uggen & Christopher, 2000).

The definition of recidivism used for the study is the percentage of offenders released from prison or a community-based sentence during a specified time and period who commit a new offence within a certain time following their release. It may also refer to be committing of an offence or breaching of a condition of sentence whilst on a community based sentence.

Four measures of recidivism rates are generally used: re-arrest, reconviction, resentencing and return with or without a new offence (Hennie, 2007).

The term "Recidivism" is used generally to refer to repetitions of behavior. It is used in negative context, to discuss socially unacceptable or morally questionable behavior in which is repeated despite punishment or training to discourage the behavior (Makarios, Steiner & Travis, 2010).

Recidivism (recidivizem; from *recidive* and *ism*, from Latin *recidivus*, recurring from *re*-"back" and *cado* "I fall") is the act of person repeating an undesirable behaviour after he/she has either experienced negative consequences of that behavior, or has been treated or trained to extinguish that behavior (Whitten & Lori 2012). It is also use to refer to the percentage of former prisoners who are rearrested for a similar offense (Makarios, Steiner & Travis, 2010).

Recidivism is usually thought of a falling back which reverses progress and is sometimes also called backsliding for that reason. The sense of falling back usually implies that recidivism is

negative rather than positive, since it reflects lapse from acceptable or healthy behavior. As a result recidivism is generally perceived as undesirable (Geroge, 2005).

Two reviews of the recidivism literature conclude that males are consistently more likely than females to resume criminal activity after formal sanctioning (Baumer, 1997; Gendreau, Little & Goggin 1996). Consistent with this generalization, Giordano, Cernkovich and Lowery (2004) reported longitudinal data from Ohio showing that previously institutionalized women were much less likely to recidivate than their male counterparts. Similarly, Smith and Paternoster (1990) found that male youth who had been formally processed by the juvenile justice system in Florida were significantly more likely to recidivate. However, Taxman and Piquero's (1998) study of drunk driving convictions, Sung's (1993) analysis of sentenced drug offenders, and Thisstlethaite, Wooldrdge and Gibbs's (1998) research on individuals arrested for domestic violence each found that sex was not a significant predictor of recidivism.

#### **2.1.4 Self Concept**

A person perception of them is shaped by how others see them. The self is the central construct in this theory. It is based largely on life experiences, social evaluation and the attitude of the individual significant other. If the individual experiences conditional positive regard from their parents, the individual develops their parents' values and conditions of worth. If self concept is based on the values of the significant other, this can give rise to incongruence between self and experience.

Self concept and conditions of worth are linked together and are important. They are guidelines to as how people behave toward others because people value their opinion of other people above their own. This affects their decision and can result in them doing things to please others rather than satisfying their own needs. Condition of worth reduces people's self

confidence, trust in their own feelings and can affect their potential towards self actualization (Rogers 1986).

### **2.1.5 The Development of Incongruence between Self and Experience.**

The need for self regard or approval is enormous. Children are influenced by their parents and strive for their approval by doing things to please them which make them feel more loved. However, if their behaviours does not meet with their approval, they feel less loved. They may then experience incongruence between self experience and this may lead to psychological maladjustment hindering personal growth towards self actualization (Rogers 1977).

### **2.1.6 Positive regards.**

To feel that one understood is to feel that one has made some kinds of positive difference in the experience of another (Rogers 2004). If the individual experiences unconditional love and does not develop conditions of worth, there is congruence between self and experience.

### **2.1.7 The Process of Reintegration.**

In order for this to be successful, the individual must experience the feelings of empathy, understanding and unconditional positive regards from a significant other. These feelings reduce conditions of worth and encourage unconditional positive regards for others. They increase self regard and re-establish congruence between self and experience (Mathy, 2004).

### **2.1.8 Guilt**

Systematic consideration of guilt date back at least to Sigmund Freud who viewed guilt as a reaction to violation of ego standards. According to Freud, guilt results when acceptable ego directed behaviour or id-based impulses conflict with the moral demands of the super ego. But he also viewed unresolved or repressed feelings of guilt as key components of many psychological symptoms. For decades, guilt remains largely in the province of psychoanalytic theory.

Guilt is an important factor in perpetuating obsessive compulsive symptoms. Both in specialized and in ordinary language, guilt is an effective state in which one experiences conflict of having done something one believes one should not have done (or conversely having not done something one should have done). It gives rise to feelings which does not go away easily, driven by conscience. Sigmund Freud described this as a result of a struggle between the ego and the superego.

Parental imprinting: This is an unconscious force within the individual that contribute to stigmatization that possibly prompts individual to recidivate or to commit prior pervasive behaviours.

Guilt is a widely misunderstood emotion, having long suffered from an underserved bad reputation. Guilt has been variously classified as one of the moral, self conscious, social and problematic emotions, under covering the complexity of this effective experience and the many different roles guilt plays in one's life.

### **2.1.9 Anti-Social Personality Disorder and Recidivism**

The current (DSM, APA) categorize antisocial disorder under the large umbrella of personality disorders, which are generally defined as “impairment personality (self /interpersonal) functioning” with the presence of “one or more pathological personality traits”. One personality disorder called sociopathic personality disturbance, contains an antisocial reaction subset that has characterized by callousness and lack of social obedience, this personality disorder evolves what is known today as antisocial personality disorder (APA, 1952). The DSM-V introduces antisocial personality disorder as its own distinct diagnosis to characterize “individual who are basically unsocialized and whose behaviour pattern brings them

repeatedly into conflict with society” with criteria such as lack of loyalty, disregard for social values, callousness and selfishness.

Antisocial personality disorder commonly emerges as one of the most predictive personality disorders for both general and violent recidivism risk (Wallinus et’al, 2012). One study found that offenders with antisocial personality disorders were nearly 5 times more likely to recidivated generally and 4 times more likely to recidivate violently when compared to offenders without antisocial personality disorder. Hiscoke (2003). Another cause for high rate of recidivism associated with antisocial personality disorder may be attributed to individuals with antisocial personality disorders being susceptible to other disorder.

## **2.2 Empirical Review/ Review of previous Studies**

In a study conducted by Baumer, Wright, Kristinsdottir, & Gunnlaugsson, (2002), recidivism has usually been interpreted as the extent of either programmatic or individual failure. This indicates that either the punishment and/or treatment utilized have been unsuccessful or the individual has refused to change. However, recidivism can also be understood as a measure of social failure. That indicates that the offender is not successfully reintegrated into the society (Baumer, Wright, Kristinsdottir, & Gunnlaugsson, 2002).

The risk factor for recidivism varies and it is important to address the problem from different viewpoints to be able to tackle the issue. The dominant factors that predict whether a person relapses into crime are gender, age, criminal history and family background. Moreover, problems with alcohol and/or drugs are also important risk factors (LeBel et al., 2008). Studies have shown that the length of the prison sentence increases the likelihood of recidivism. In addition, a prison sentence has a negative effect on individuals that are serving for the first time.

Therefore, prisons should not be considered as a way to reduce crime. Instead, a prison sentence has counterproductive effect on the incarcerated (Minke, 2012).

Former inmates often struggle financially and therefore have difficulties affording their own residence after release from prison. The stigma that follows conviction and incarceration makes it difficult for former inmates to find work. All these factors can increase the likelihood of recidivism (LeBel et al., 2008). Furthermore, because of this lack of opportunities offenders see more benefit in continuing on their criminal path. Individuals are usually guided by different rewards and penalties. The decision of committing crime again can be seen as the consequence of the offenders' benefits in crime versus the disadvantages they come across in society (Hauge, 1996). Moreover, after release, offenders often find it hard to re-establish their relationship with their family. Yet, if they are in a good marriage, they have the emotional support and the motivation to abandon former criminal activity after release (LeBel et al., 2008).

The offenders' way of thinking can also serve as an individual risk factor for recidivists. LeBel, Burnett, Maruna, & Bushway (2008) presented four themes to explain why offenders turn their backs on criminal behavior on one hand and continue on their criminal path on the other hand. The first theme is hope and self-efficacy, which explains the individuals' perception and self-confidence that they can achieve their personal goals. It entails the desire for a certain outcome and the confidence in their ability to achieve the desired outcome. Secondly, shame and remorse; Feeling shame is one of the reasons ex-inmates want to stop criminal behavior. However, according to LeBel et al., (2008), shame does not have a direct impact on recidivism. Thirdly, internalizing stigma, which explains that stigmatization, results in further recidivism. If ex-inmates identify themselves as being outcasts in society, which is unacceptable for their re-entry, they are more likely to continue on their criminal path. Lastly, the alternative identities;

Stigmatization can also have the opposite effect on the individual, where he could develop a prosaically identity, for example as the good father, husband or the provider.

Stigma is a social phenomenon that, properly understood, contributes to our understanding of identity construction and social hierarchy in any given social system. In short, a stigma is something that designates a person as marked or spoiled (Dovidio et al. 2003; Goffman 1963). In his seminal work, *Stigma: Notes on the Management of a Spoiled Identity*, Goffman (1963) states that the term stigma then, will be used to refer to an attribute that is deeply discrediting, but it should be seen that a language of relationships, not attributes, is really needed. An attribute that stigmatizes one type of possessor can confirm the usualness of another, and therefore is neither creditable nor discreditable as a thing in itself.

For Goffman, stigmas are historically and culturally constructed attributes that belong to relationships varying in size and nature. This means that stigmas can be understood, and responded to, in very different ways. At different points in time a person's relatively static quality may or may not constitute the possession of a stigma.

When a quality is recognized and responded to as a stigma there are two processes that occur. First, the possessor of the stigma is identified as different based on the possession of this mark or quality. Second, and more importantly, the possessor is devalued based on the possession of this mark (Dovidio et al. 2003). This distinguishes stigma from deviance in that stigma is always an undesirable characteristic in the context in which it is being examined (Archer 1985; Dovidio et al. 2003; Frable 1993).

Understanding stigma helps advance the explanation for the practice and maintenance of social inequality. Also important in the consideration of stigma as an active process belonging to relationships is a discussion of the actors involved in the process of stigmatization.

Stigmatization is an active process that involves at the very least two actors: one who is understood to give (although she does not necessarily need to have given) a stigma and one that is stigmatized. Goffman (1963) refers to these two groups as the “normals” and the “stigmatized.” While Goffman’s terms convey a meaningful distinction they are criticized for lacking agency in the construction and use of stigma. Dovidio et al. (2003) argue that to understand the placing of stigma on a person it is better to use the terms “perceiver” and “target.” Dovidio et al. (2003) states that it has been noted that people who are involved in stigmatizing others may also be stigmatized in some way themselves. This may occur on a different dimension (e.g. deaf people stigmatizing others on the basis of race); on the same dimension, such as race (e.g., lighter skinned Blacks stigmatizing darker-skinned blacks). We also acknowledge, however, that ‘perceivers’ are not simply ‘observers’: they participate actively in the perpetual, memorial, interpretational, and attribution processes, and in the behavioral processes that can perpetuate and exacerbate stigmatization. Similarly, ‘targets’ are not passive recipients of stigmatization: they too are active perceivers who interpret, cope, and respond to stigmatization.

Literature indicates that there are two important general functions of stigma.

First, stigma facilitates the development of a positive identity for perceivers. Downward-comparison theory argues that stigma serves the function of propping up the identity and performance of the individual doing the perceiving (Dovidio et al. 2003; Wills 1981). The ability of a perceiver to compare himself or herself to someone deemed lesser in some relevant social hierarchy is the ability to conceive of the self as strong. When stigma is considered as a process that exists in different contexts, this means that individuals can use the role of perceiver for their own good. Goffman (1963), although not addressing functionality as a central concern of his

work, acknowledges this possibility at the individual and societal levels stating that “In theory, a deviant community could come to perform for society at large something of the same functions performed by an in-group deviant for his group; but while this is thinkable, no one yet seems to have demonstrated the case (p. 144).” Researchers (not necessarily motivated by Goffman) have attempted to demonstrate this function (Dovidio et al. 2003; Mackie et al. 1996). This research varies from the realm of terror management in response to abominations of the body (Solomon et al. 1991) to positive group attribution comparison in response to marks of character and tribal stigmas (Tajfel & Turner 1979).

Stigma plays a second important role in the functioning of society: maintenance of existing social conventions. In this manner, stigma serves as a device that justifies already existing forms of social and institutional discrimination. This sort of function involves the interaction between individual and group level forms of stigmatization. At the group level, stigma justifies the initiation and maintenance of disparate forms of treatment in a particular social system, such as prisoners (Dovido et al. 2003).

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## **2.3 Theoretical Framework**

### **2.3.1 Labeling Theory**

The labeling theory focuses on the consequences of the societal reaction that a deviant behavior receives. The society labels and stigmatizes the deviant (Bernburg, 2009). That results

in the individual becoming less worthy in the eyes of others. Consequently, his opinion of himself changes because he faces negative images of himself through others. (Bernburg, 2005).

The roots of the labeling theory can be traced back to Frank Tannenbaum (1985), where he explained the “dramatization of evil”. Tannenbaum (1985) also argued that people become deviant because others in society see them as one. When they have successfully been labeled and a certain classification has occurred, it is difficult to prove that they are not bad. Tannenbaum believed that an individual becomes the person others have defined him as being. Furthermore, he pointed out that being labeled could result in the individual moving away from traditional norms of society. Because of the loss of opportunities, likelihood of delinquent behavior increases (Cullen and Agnew, 2011).

Both Lemert (in 1951) and later Becker (in 1963) clarified Tannenbaum’s idea on labeling. Lemert introduced his concepts of primary and secondary deviance, which will be discussed further in the next section (Cullen & Agnew, 2011). Becker, presented the concept of master status in his book *Outsiders*, which will be introduced later in this chapter.

### **2.3.2 Attribution Theory**

Past participation in criminal activity is a stigma that blemishes individual character. Blemishes of individual character are highly potent forms of stigma because they imply a constant risk of danger. In 1958, Fritz Heider became the first person to write about attribution theory in his book *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations* (Heider 1958; Stephan 1973). Heider presented his general problem of attribution, which is how people explain behavior and how these explanations of behavior shape the individual’s response to the behavior. Heider presented the analogy of the ordinary person being a naive scientist that is attempting to stabilize

and simplify the environment that he or she is studying so that behavior can be comprehended, predicted, and controlled. People see all actions dispositional and that is what makes them controllable and understandable. The dispositions that are the most relevant to the ordinary person are those that cause events to occur. Heider (1958) argues that it is not the event itself but the perceived cause of it that is the reality to which a person reacts. Thus, interpersonal relations depend, in large part, on each person's perceptions of the other's behavior (Heider 1958). Heider's analysis demonstrates the process of stigmatizing actions of ex-offenders.

Literature specific to persons in prison and exiting prison illustrates that this attribution process is highly relevant to ex-offenders (Brazemore & Erbe 2004; Burnett 2004; Erikson 1961; Farrall 2004; Goffman 1963; Hawkins 1981; Lee & Craft 2002; Maruna, Immarigeon and LeBel 2004; Maruna 2001; Orcutt 1976; Petersilia 2003; Reiman 2005; Richards & Jones 2004; Uggen, Manza & Behrens 2004). Despite evidence indicating that some level of criminal activity is normal over the life-course, there is a distinction made in most social systems, America being one of them, between criminals and non-criminals (Moffitt 1993; Sampson & Laub 1993). Attribution theory would indicate that this distinction has to do with the attribution of guilt and a lack of responsibility. In other words, "criminals" are persons that choose to commit crime because they possess flawed judgment (Brazemore and Erbe 2004; Erikson 1961; Farrall 2004; Hawkins 1981; Maruna, Immarigeon & LeBel 2004; Maruna 2001; Orcutt 1976; Reiman 2005; Uggen, Manza & Behrens 2004). People exiting prison face the detrimental status of having their stigma officially placed upon them by the recognized labeling agent, the state. A great deal of effort goes into this official declaration of stigma, but only limited attempts are made to reduce this stigma upon reentry at the individual, or state, level (Reiman 2005; Maruna, Immarigeon & LeBel 2004; Brazemore & Erbe 2004; Farrall 2004; Petersilia 2003; Richards & Jones 2004;

Uggen, Manza & Behrens 2004; Lee & Craft 2002; Erikson, 2004; Hawkins 1981; Maruna, Immarigeon & LeBel 2004; Maruna 2001; Orcutt 1976; Reiman 2005; Uggen, Manza & Behrens 2004). People exiting prison face the detrimental status of having their stigma officially placed upon them by the recognized labeling agent, the state. A great deal of effort goes into this official declaration of stigma, but only limited attempts are made to reduce this stigma upon reentry at the individual, or state, level (Reiman 2005; Maruna, Immarigeon & LeBel 2004; Brazemore & Erbe 2004; Farrall 2004; Petersilia 2003; Richards & Jones 2004; Uggen, Manza & Behrens 2004; Lee & Craft 2002; Erikson 1961).

While ex-offenders' high recidivism rates are a reality, the expanding prison population has made reentry and recidivism a more important topic for prison officials (Bushway et. al 2004; Farrall 2004). Inside prison walls, the majority of programs focus on understanding harm from crimes and job training for prisoners, but there is relatively little discussion concerning social structure, inequality, and government bias as causes of and impediments to disproportionate criminal behavior, punishment, and recidivism; this is not a surprising fact (Bouffard & Laub 2004; Brazemore & Erbe 2004).

Stigma affects the actions of individuals being stigmatized by causing them to constantly consider how others will view them. Cooley (1902) argued that we often look at ourselves through the eyes of others and act based on those interpretations. This concept, known as the "Looking Glass Self," was modified to argue that we look at ourselves the way that we believe society views us (Cioffi 2003; Cooley 1902; Mead 1934). This distinction is important because the target of stigma needs only to be affected by ideas about how persons might view her (Cioffi, 2003).

In a general sense, there are a number of ways that stigma contributes to problems for individuals attempting to change their status. Stigma contributes to difficulty in interactions with others. Ex-offenders, as labeled, are perceived as threats. Targets that possess blemishes of individual character are viewed as unreliable and untrustworthy and therefore always a potential threat (Goffman 1961). This stigma is not consistent across all potential perceivers, but ex-offenders are consistently aware of the fact that others might perceive them as a threat (Crandall 2003; Goffman 1961; Richards & Jones 2004; Stangor & Crandall 2003). This contributes to problematic interactions between stigmatized and non-stigmatized individuals, leading to frustration, isolation, and even violence (Blascovich et al. 2003; Hebl, Tickle & Heatherton 2003; Smart & Wegner 2003; Strangor & Crandall 2003). Additional consequences include rejection (Fife & Wright 2000; Markowitz 2001), self deprecation and internalization of stigma (Wright, Gronofein & Owens 2000) and complete societal withdrawal (Link, Mirotznik & Cullen 1991; Link & Struenig 1997). Individuals with a highly stigmatized status often have trouble finding help from others of the same status because the stigma is so entrenched in society that even those who possess the stigma will stigmatize others like them (Gerstel 1987). All of these impacts affect identity work by ex-offenders because they challenge a target's mastery over his own identity (Link, Mirotznik & Cullen 1991).

### **2.3.3 Inference Theory**

In 1965, Edward Jones and Keith Davis put forth their correspondent inference theory in a paper for *Advanced Experiments in Social Psychology*. The central concern of this theory is how an observer of an action makes inferences about the disposition of the actor. Jones and Davis argue that first and foremost the observer must decide whether the behavior is caused by the actor or by the particular setting in which the actor finds himself. The rationale is that only

intentional behavior is relevant to making judgments about a person. Intention is determined by factors such as behavioral freedom, ability to foresee negative consequences, and ability to achieve desired goals (Jones & Davis 1965). Secondly, the observer seeks to infer the actor's particular intentions and then uses these perceived intentions to form thoughts on the actor's particular dispositions. The dependent variable in this theory is correspondence of inference, which refers to when a disposition is directly reflected in the behavior of an actor and is unusual in strength and intensity (Jones & Davis 1965). Blemishes of individual character are especially difficult to overcome because perceivers use the stigma to justify hierarchy and confirm any negative dispositions that they perceive in targets.

#### **2.4 Summary of Review**

From the empirical review of literature, Recidivism is seen as being interpreted as the extent of either programmatic or individual failure. This indicates that either the punishment and/or treatment utilized have been unsuccessful or the individual has refused to change. However, recidivism can also be understood as a measure of social failure. That indicates that the offender is not successfully reintegrated into the society (Baumer, Wright, Kristinsdottir, & Gunnlaugsson, 2002).

The word recidivism is seeing as relapse into crime and is used for offenders that have formerly served a sentence in prison & commit another crime. In some cases it is called recidivism when an individual has served a prison sentence at least twice (Reber & Reber, 2001)

For Goffman, stigmas are historical cultural constructed attributes that belong to relationship varying in size and nature. This means that stigmas can be understood and responded to, in different ways. At different points in time a person's static quality may or may not constitute the possession of a stigma.

Literature indicates that there are two important general functions of stigma. First, stigma facilitates the development of a positive identity for perceivers. Downward comparison theory argues that stigma serves the function of propping up the identity and performance of the individual during the perceiving (Dovidio et al, 2003; Wills 1981).

Stigma plays the second role in the functioning of society; maintenance of existing social conventions. In this manner stigma serves as a device that justifies already existing forms of social and institutional discrimination. This sort of function involves the interaction between individual and group level forms of stigmatization (Wills 1983).

Stigma affects the actions of individual being stigmatized by causing them to constantly consider how others will view them. Cooley (1902) argued that we often look at ourselves through the eyes of others and act based on those interpretations. We look at ourselves the way we believe society views us. (Mead, 1934)

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Design**

For this study, the researcher used the survey method. The research method has been selected to make it possible for the research questions to dig deep enough and elicit responses adequate enough to evaluate the perception of respondents. This is considered a sure way to gain access into the unclear areas of perception and sense impressions. The survey method was considered most appropriate for the study because of its strengths.

#### **3.2 Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques**

Fifty (50) participants out of Three hundred and seven (307) recidivist inmates were drawn using the purposive sampling technique to select both male and female recidivist inmates. Thirty (39) males and eleven (11) female recidivists with an age range of (18 to 45years), who have served one or more jail sentences before present incarceration, from Keffi prisons served as the participants for the study.

#### **3.3 Methods of Data Collection**

The researcher approached prison facilities and vividly explained the purpose of research to prison staff, after which permission was sought to administer questionnaires to the selected prison inmates. All inmates that participated in the study did so voluntarily. Questionnaires were administered to the recidivist prisoners and the researcher elicited how they perceived stigmatization.

#### **3.4 Technique for Data Analysis**

In this study the researcher used independent t-test and evaluated the difference between male and female recidivist prisoners on their perception of stigmatization, for the first

hypothesis. For the second hypothesis one-way ANOVA was used in assessing the age difference of the recidivist prisoners and their perception of stigmatization. The third hypothesis employed the use of independent t-test in testing the level of education of the recidivist on their perception of stigmatization.

### **3.5 Justification of Methods**

Based on the above categories of methods adopted for the purpose of this research work, it is important because the methods and procedures adopted in this research report gives the reader background information on how to evaluate the findings and conclusion. This is because it gives at a glance, a quicker understanding and allowed for a comprehensive analysis which enables readers to understand.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The data for this study were collated and analyzed with SPSS V20. Data were presented in frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations to determine the characteristics of the participants. The data were further subjected to inferential statistics for the tests of significance. Independent Sample t-test was used to assess the difference between male and female recidivist prisoners on the perception of stigmatization; also the difference in educational level. One-way ANOVA was used to assess the mean difference between age groups among the prisoners on the perception of stigmatization.

#### 4.1 Data Presentation

**Table 1: Frequency and Percentages of the Characteristics of Participants**

<b>VARIABLES</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>PERCENTAGES</b>	
<b>Gender</b>	Male	39	78
	Female	11	22
	<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100%</b>
<b>Level of Education</b>	Educated	42	84
	Uneducated	8	16
	<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100%</b>
<b>Age</b>	18-28 Years	25	50
	29-38 Years	16	32
	39 Above	9	18
	<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100%</b>

Table 1, shows the frequency and percentages of the characteristics of 50 participants (male = 39 and female = 11). Age ranged between 18 – 48 years with mean age 30.04 and SD = 8.50. Age was further grouped as 18-28 years (N=25, 50%), 29 -38 years (N= 16, 32%) and 39 above (N=

9, 18%). Educated recidivist prisoners were 42 (84%) while uneducated recidivist prisoners were 8 (16%).

## 4.2 Data Analysis and Results

### Hypothesis One

Hypothesis one stated that, there will be a significant difference on male and female recidivist prisoners on how they perceived the impact of stigmatization. This hypothesis was tested with Independent-sample t-test in Table 2

**Table 2: Difference between Male and Female Recidivist Prisoners on the Perception of the Impact of Stigmatization**

Variables	Mean	SD	Df	t-test	Sig.
Male	24.97	2.44	48	-3.569	0.001
Female	28.64	4.55			

**Sig. Level:**  $P < .01$

Table 2, shows the mean difference between male and female recidivist prisoners in Keffi prison. Where the results revealed a mean scores for male prisoners (M= 24.97; SD= 2.44) and female prisoners (M= 28.64; SD= 4.55). Further analysis revealed a statistically significantly (48) = -3.569,  $P < 0.01$ , between male and female recidivist prisoners on the perceived impact of stigmatization. This implies that, prisoners gender determine how they perceived stigmatization in Keffi medium security prison. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed in this study.

### Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two stated that, there will be a significant difference between the age difference of recidivist prisoners perception on stigmatization. This hypothesis was tested with ANOVA in Table 3a and 3b.

**Table 3a: Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived Impact of Stigmatization According to Age**

<b>Age Group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>18 - 28 Years</b>	25	27.55	4.23
<b>29 – 38 Years</b>	16	23.56	1.63
<b>39 Above</b>	9	23.33	4.36
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>25.52</b>	<b>4.12</b>

Table 3a; show the means and standard deviations of recidivist prisoners on the impact of stigmatization according to their age groups. The results revealed that, prisoners between age 18-28 years have a mean score of 27.55 and SD of 4.23 compared with those between ages 29 – 38 years and 39 years above who shows a mean scores of 23.56 and 23.33 with SD of 1.63 and 4.36 respectively.

**Table 3b: Summary of ANOVA Results on Perceived Impact of Stigmatization**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Between Groups	208.382	2	104.191		
Within Groups	622.098	47	13.236	7.872	.001
<b>Total</b>	<b>830.480</b>	<b>49</b>			

Table 3b, shows the summary result of the analysis of variance where it revealed that, there is a statistically significant;  $F(2,47) = 7.872$ ,  $P < 0.01$  difference between recidivist prisoners across their age groups on the perceived impact of stigmatization in Keffi medium security prison. This implies that, the age of the prisoners determine his /her perception of stigmatization among the recidivist prisoners. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed in this study.

### **Hypothesis Three**

Hypothesis three stated that, there will be a significant difference on the education of the recidivist prisoners on the perception of the impact of stigmatization. This hypothesis was tested with Independent-Sample t-test in Table 4.

**Table 4: Difference in the Education of the Recidivist Prisoners on the Perceived impact of Stigmatization**

Variables	Mean	SD	Df	t-test	Sig.
Educated	25.83	4.04	48	1.24	0.221
Uneducated	23.88	4.39			

**Sig. Level:**  $P > .05$

Table 4, shows the mean scores on the difference between educated recidivist prisoners and uneducated recidivist prisoners in Keffi medium security prison. The results revealed that, educated prisoners (M= 25.83; SD= 4.04) and uneducated prisoners (M= 23.88; SD= 4.39). Further analysis revealed a non-statistically significant;  $t(48) = 1.24$ ,  $P > 0.05$  difference on the perceived impact of stigmatization among the recidivist prisoners in keffi medium security prison. This implies that, the educated prisoners do not differs in the way the perceived stigmatization compared to the way the uneducated prisoner's perceived stigmatization in Keffi medium security prisons. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected in this study.

### 4.3 Discussion of Findings

The results in this study were summarized as follows:

After testing the first hypothesis, the results revealed a mean scores for male prisoners (M= 24.97; SD= 2.44) and female prisoners (M= 28.64; SD= 4.55). Further analysis revealed a statistically significant  $t(48) = -3.569$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , difference between male and female recidivist prisoners on the perceived impact of stigmatization. This reveals that, the first hypothesis was confirmed as significant; thus, the researcher concludes that, there is a significant difference between male recidivist prisoners and female recidivist prisoners on the perception of the impact of stigmatization in Keffi medium security prison.

The test of the second hypothesis revealed that, prisoners between age 18-28 years have a mean score of 27.55 and SD of 4.23 compared with those between ages 29 – 38 years and 39 years above who shows a mean scores of 23.56 and 23.33 with SD of 1.63 and 4.36 respectively.

thus, the researcher concludes that, there is a statistically significant difference on the age of recidivist prisoners perception of the impact of stigmatization in Keffi medium security prison.

The third hypothesis was rejected and not statistically significant because the test of hypothesis revealed no significant correlation between educational status and recidivism as presented in the means and standard deviation thus; Educated prisoners (M= 25.83; SD= 4.04) and uneducated prisoners (M= 23.88; SD= 4.39). Further analysis revealed a non-statistically significant (48) = 1.24,  $P > 0.05$  difference on the perceived impact of stigmatization among the recidivist prisoners in keffi medium security prison. Thus, the researcher concludes that, there is no significant difference between the level of education of the recidivist prisoners and the perception of the impact of stigmatization in Keffi medium security prison.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary

The first hypothesis which stated that there will be a significant difference between male and female recidivist prisoners on how they perceive the impact of stigmatization was confirmed as statistically significant. That is, there is a significant difference between male recidivist prisoners and female recidivist prisoners on their perception of impact of stigmatization in Keffi Prisons.

The finding agrees with the findings of Winnick and Bodkin (2008) who examined how 450 female offenders thought people in society would react to the label of “ex-con”. Offenders perceived a great deal of stigma and reported perceiving the most stigmas on items in the domains of employment and childcare. Offender’s perceived stigma was also related to anticipating the use of negative coping styles. Also Baumer 1997, in his study concludes that females are more likely than males to resume criminal activities after formal sanctioning.

The second hypothesis which stated that there will be a significant difference on the age of recidivist prisoners on how they perceive stigmatization was confirmed as statistically significant. This study agrees with the findings of Alison & Lindsey 2007 that age, generally influence how people perceived stigma.

The third hypothesis stated that there will be a significant difference on educational level of recidivist prisoners on how they perceive stigmatization was rejected. This finding disagrees with the earlier findings in the area by Dalu, 2015 that opined that education seems to play a major role in the society with respect to stigma and discrimination.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

Future research is needed to clarify what moderate the relationship between perceiving stigma from the recidivist prisoners and personally expecting to be discriminated against; relevant variables that may moderate this link could include those that reflect how one cognitively processes stigma (i.e internalized stigma) however, one incorporate stigma into one's identity), attitude towards one's stigmatized group, and other individual personality characteristics such as shame-proneness.

For better understanding of the nature of perceive impact of stigmatization on recidivist prisoners, other variables such as emotional, religion and personality types should be included in the study for us to have a more defined approach mechanism in combating this problem.

Much more research is needed to understand stigma in correctional populations, especially research focusing on the emotional and cognitive response to stigma that may mediate and moderate these relationships.

Further investigation is needed to understand why these are race differences in the relationship between stigma and functioning. This research could yield important information about how to address stigma with different groups of offenders.

## **5.3 Recommendations**

In order to create an enabling environment for reintegration and reduce stigmatization, educating society and public opinion is necessary to create social awareness and try to break barriers around recidivist (prejudices). It is important to make a clear distinction between the act and the individual stigmatizing the action but not the person.

It is also best to use neutral terminology in describing the recidivists and to separate also with words his/her past identity from his/her new one. Often recidivists experience self stigmatization

and perceive themselves according to how they think they are viewed and treated by government and other stakeholders who interact with them during the detention and post release period.

Courts should find that the recidivist has a liberty interest in avoiding the stigmatizing label and the conditions associated with it. Therefore, measures should be provided to guard against this social vice in the following way; by providing procedural due process protections to prisoners who are thus stigmatized is a step towards ensuring that prisons classify and treat inmates for what they have done, not based on who the prison system imagines them to be.

Also, concerning community safety and assisting offenders has resulted in an increased focus on the reintegration of offenders in the community and the reduction of re-offending. Efforts should be focused on specific strategies for providing assistance to ex-offenders. This should include securing legal employment, finding suitable accommodation, addressing substance abuse issues and mental –adaptation check-ups.

#### **5.4 Limitations of the study**

There are limitations to the present research that should be noted. First, we studied only a small unit of population that may represent the general population and may not present an accurate picture of recidivist prisoners' perception toward stigmatization.

Given the limited demographic information collected, we were not able to examine the potential of role certain potentially important demographic factor such as culture. Perception of recidivist prisoners may be different depending on certain cultural factors (i.e., individualistic vs. collectivistic cultures), and examine perception of recidivist prisoners across cultures is an important future direction (see Shechtman et al., 2009).

This sample population was drawn from one prison setting, potentially limiting the generalizability of these findings. For instance, recidivist prisoners in other geographic locations

and prison settings may perceive or anticipate more or less stigma from the community. Also due to sample size, there was low power for detecting stigma by race interactions.

### **5.5 Suggestions for Further Study**

In all, this study provides the important step in understanding the perception of recidivist prisoners. Serving a prison sentence is stigmatizing as is being convicted of a crime, but the fact that inmates are demeaned in these ways should not deprive them of a liberty interest in avoiding further stigma. To this end, the result of this study concludes that gender as a factor has no significant influence on how people perceive the impact of stigmatization or recidivist inmates. It further concludes that age plays significant part on how recidivist prisoners perceive the impact of stigmatization. Notwithstanding, the educational level of recidivist prisoners have nothing to do with their perception on stigmatization.

Moreover, the study showed no significant interaction effect between gender and age of the recidivist prisoners on how they perceive the impact of stigmatization. Based on the above findings, the researcher concluded that the results observed could be linked to the fact that male and female recidivist prisoners perception regarding the impact of stigmatization which make them to commit the crime that took them to prison differ. This is because female recidivists tend to experience stigmatization most comparing to male recidivist prisoners that led to their reincarceration. The same goes for educational level of the recidivist prisoners one is educated or uneducated or has nothing to do with psychological impact of stigmatization how one feels. Both educated and uneducated fall prey of this phenomena stigmatization after been released from prison community.

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**APPENDIX 1**

Department of Psychology  
Faculty of Social Sciences,  
Nasarawa State University,  
Keffi

Dear Respondents,

I am a student of the institution conducting a research project entitled **The perceived impact of Stigmatization on recidivists prisoners in Keffi Prison.** Kindly help to fill in this questionnaire as honest as you possibly can. The information is required for research only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thanks for your co-operation

Yours Faithfully

**Labani Gambo Blanzo**

NSU/SS/MSc/PSY/030/15/16

## APPENDIX 2

### SECTION A

Age \_\_\_\_\_ Sex: Male/Female \_\_\_\_\_  
 Educational Qualification: Secondary/ Tertiary Date: \_\_\_\_\_

### SECTION B

Instructions: Please read the statement below and tick the appropriate box as it applies to how true it is of you by ticking ( ) from the corresponding response key 1- 3

1 = A lot                      2 = Little                      3 = Not at all

THE PERCEIVED PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF STIGMATIZATION ON RECIDIVIST PRISONERS IN KEFFI					
	S/N	STATEMENT	1	2	3
<b>DISCRIMINATION</b>	1	Have you been treated unfairly by people in your neighbourhood?			
	2	Have you been treated unfairly by your old friends?			
	3	Have you been marked by your relatives for being an ex-prisoner?			
	4	Have you been treated unfairly while using public amenities?			
	5	Have you experienced being avoided by former friends?			
<b>ISOLATION</b>	6	Have you ever isolated yourself from friends because of the shame of ever been to prison?			
	7	Have you ever isolated yourself from your family because of the stigma of being an ex-prisoner?			
	8	Have you ever detached yourself from community gatherings because of the shame of ever been to prison?			
	9	Have you ever separated yourself from your religious practice because of shame?			
	10	Have you ever isolated yourself from your community because of shame of being an ex-prisoner?			
<b>AVOIDANCE</b>	11	Have you ever been avoided by friends and peers?			
	12	Have you ever been avoided by people in your neighbourhood?			
	13	Have you ever been stopped from participating in any community briefings?			
	14	Have you ever been avoided by your family and relatives?			
	15	Have you ever been suspended from participating in religious activities?			
<b>REFUSAL</b>	16	Has your family ever refused you from participating in any family discussions?			
	17	Has your family ever refused you of any benefits of the family?			
	18	Have you been refused to be given any responsibility in your community?			
	19	Have been deprived any benefits by your friends because you have been to prison?			
	20	Have you been deprived of any benefits in your community because you have been to prison?			

### APPENDIX 3

[DataSet2] C:\Users\FAMconsult\Documents\my MSC work\New folder\MSC SPSS 2018\Labaniblanzodata.sav

#### Frequency Table

##### Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	39	78.0	78.0	78.0
	Female	11	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

##### Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-28 Years	25	50.0	50.0	50.0
	29-38 Years	16	32.0	32.0	82.0
	39 Above	9	18.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

##### Educational

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Educated	42	84.0	84.0	84.0
	Uneducated	8	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

## T-Test

### Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perceived Impact of Stigmatization	Male	39	24.97	2.444	.391
	Female	11	28.64	4.545	1.370

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Perceived Impact of Stigmatization	Equal variances assumed	8.325	.006	3.569	48	.001	-3.662	1.026	-5.725	1.599
	Equal variances not assumed			2.570	11.677	.025	-3.662	1.425	-6.777	-.547

## Oneway

### Descriptives

#### Perceived Impact of Stigmatization

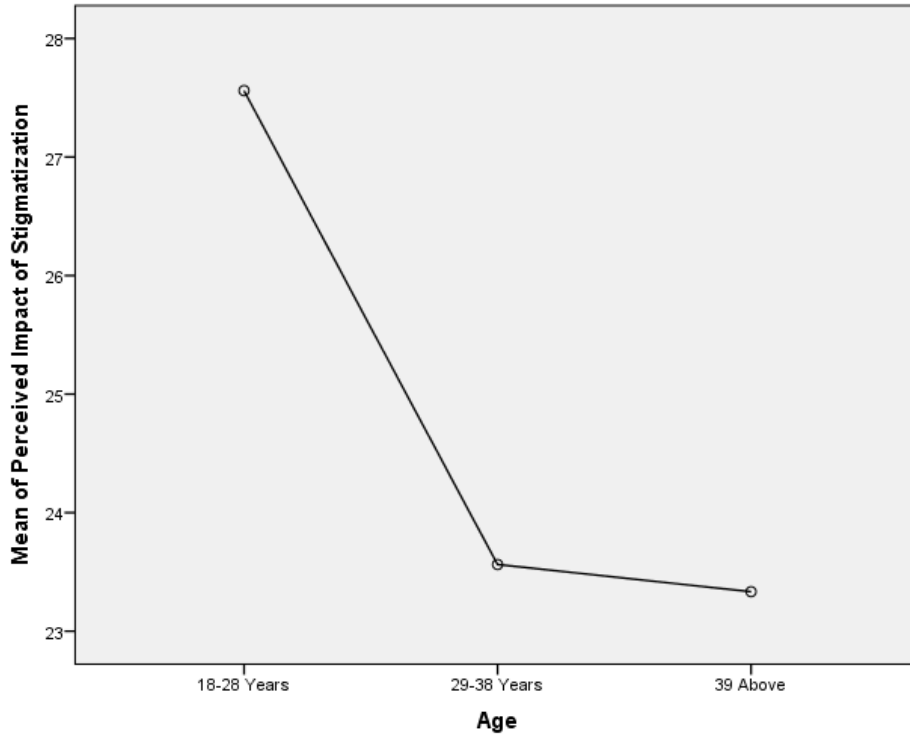
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
18-28 Years	25	27.56	4.234	.847	25.81	29.31	22	37
29-38 Years	16	23.56	1.632	.408	22.69	24.43	21	26
39 Above	9	23.33	4.359	1.453	19.98	26.68	20	34
Total	50	25.52	4.117	.582	24.35	26.69	20	37

### ANOVA

#### Perceived Impact of Stigmatization

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	208.382	2	104.191	7.872	.001
Within Groups	622.098	47	13.236		
Total	830.480	49			

### Means Plots



### T-Test

#### Group Statistics

	Education al	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perceived Impact of Stigmatization	Educated	42	25.83	4.042	.624
	Uneducated	8	23.88	4.390	1.552

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Perceived Impact of Stigmatization	Equal variances assumed	.118	.733	1.240	48	.221	1.958	1.579	-1.217	5.134
	Equal variances not assumed			1.171	9.402	.270	1.958	1.673	-1.801	5.717

### Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.654	.647	20

### Item Statistic

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
q1	2.30	.949	10
q2	2.30	.949	10
q3	2.30	.823	10
q4	2.30	.949	10
q5	2.20	.789	10
q6	2.10	.876	10
q7	2.10	.876	10
q8	2.10	.568	10
q9	2.00	.816	10
q10	2.30	.823	10
q11	2.60	.699	10
q12	1.80	.632	10
q13	2.20	.919	10
q14	2.40	.843	10
q15	2.40	.843	10
q16	2.30	.949	10
q17	2.20	1.033	10
q18	2.30	.949	10
q19	2.40	.843	10
q20	2.40	.843	10

### Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	2.250	1.800	2.600	.800	1.444	.030	20

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
q1	42.70	30.456	.698	.	.579
q2	42.70	30.678	.675	.	.583
q3	42.70	35.789	.223	.	.644
q4	42.70	36.678	.095	.	.660
q5	42.80	35.511	.269	.	.639
q6	42.90	40.544	-.237	.	.694
q7	42.90	36.100	.171	.	.650
q8	42.90	36.544	.262	.	.642
q9	43.00	46.000	-.722	.	.735
q10	42.70	31.344	.721	.	.585
q11	42.40	33.822	.536	.	.614
q12	43.20	36.400	.245	.	.642
q13	42.80	37.733	.008	.	.670
q14	42.60	32.489	.569	.	.603
q15	42.60	37.600	.034	.	.664
q16	42.70	39.344	-.133	.	.687
q17	42.80	28.622	.812	.	.555
q18	42.70	32.233	.514	.	.605
q19	42.60	35.822	.211	.	.645
q20	42.60	36.933	.100	.	.657

**Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
45.00	38.667	6.218	20